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ABSTRACT

The demand for educational reform has reopened several debates concerning fundamental aspects of education. Three of these debates--the goals of education, school governance structures, and the locus of control for reform--are linked to teacher participation. This paper suggests that education's goals could best be addressed by action research applied at the school site level. Shared governance would shift the locus of control from administrators to teachers in a process of teacher empowerment. In this model, the reform occurs through a web of teacher interaction instead of depending on a top-down, pyramidic intervention. The teacher group would use action research, increased professionalism, and empowerment to implement the processes necessary to reach mutually acceptable school improvement goals. The participative approach would lead to many diverse processes, depending on the perceived needs of the individuals closest to the reform action. There are many instances of teacher restructuring of schools already in use. The process described here combines Nominal Group Techniques with Force Field Analysis to allow school staffs to plan, implement, and evaluate school improvement initiatives. An appendix contains extensive background information for teacher groups and a bibliography. (35 references) (MLH)

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Teacher Participation in School Governance: A Central Element in Educational Reform

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The term "teacher participation", when used in relation to school governance, may mean anything from the use of a social technology intended to encourage the sharing of opinions to a collegial process in which teachers, as a group, share administrative responsibilities. It is assumed here that *teacher participation* in school governance implies that (a) the process includes some structural mechanism to facilitate individual input into group decision making and that (b) there is some level of transference of responsibility from administrators to teachers.

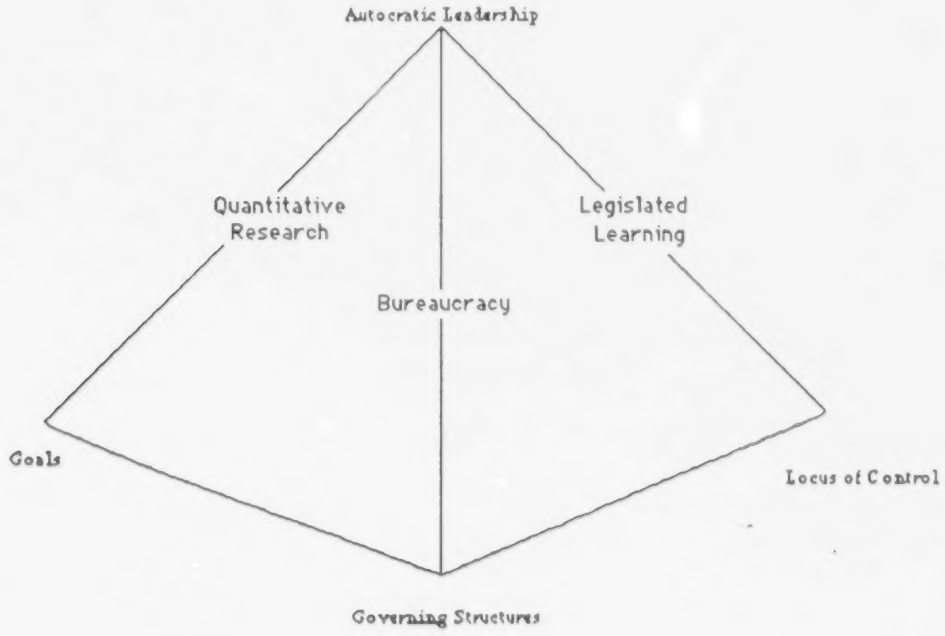
Teacher participation is often identified as a "basic attribute" of an "effective school" (Purkey and Smith, 1983; Rosenholtz, 1985; Bacharach and Conley, 1986) and the increased demand for "effective schools" is a part of a growing public awareness of and educator acceptance of changing expectations for our school systems.

The demand for educational reform has reopened several debates concerning fundamental aspects of education. Three of these debates, those concerning *(a) the goals of education, (b) school governance structures,* and *(c) the locus of control for reform* are linked to participation. In this paper it is suggested that the goals of education could be best addressed by *action research* applied at the school site level. This would involve *shared governance* and would shift the locus of control from administrators to teachers in a process of *teacher empowerment.* In this model the reform process takes place through a web of teacher interaction rather than as the result of a top-down pyramid of intervention. Teacher participation in school governance is a central and vital element in school reform. This paper forms the rationale for this model and offers one process by which administrators may "shift" their administrative style away from the "pyramid" toward the "web".

The "Pyramid" Approach to Reform

Attempts at school reform are often "pyramidic" in that the impetus, methodology and assessment are initiated "at the top". The components of this pyramid, as they relate to our three areas of debate are shown on Figure 1. Because the locus of control is at the top, the reform is based not on teacher competence but on teacher adherence to legislated learning outcomes. Bureaucratic processes facilitate externally imposed control and discourage professionalism in favour of technical expertise.

Figure 1: "Pyramidic" Structures of Reform



Teacher participation in school governance would shift the locus of control to allow teachers to interact with each other to develop a "web" of interrelated factors in order to initiate a complex supportive structure of teacher initiated reform. It is this "web" model which is advocated here through an examination of the three debates.

The Interrelated Debates

Although the debate concerning *goals of education* is not new, the other two are more current. Governance structures for educational institutions, for example, have rarely been questioned. They evolved in a "natural" progression from the single teacher schoolhouse to the multi-classroomed building. We simply "dragged" several autonomous classrooms together and put somebody in charge (Lortie, 1975). It is only in recent years that we have questioned that structure. The debate concerning locus of control is also contemporary. Higher levels of teacher education and increased teacher demands for input have forced many to accept the fact that teachers have the expertise necessary in order to become directly responsible for educational reform.

The Goals of Education

In 1966, the Commission of Imperatives on Education of the American Association of School Administrators identified nine goals for schools . These included: making urban life rewarding and satisfying, preparing people for the world of work, discerning and nurturing creative talent, strengthening the moral fabric of society, dealing with psychological tensions, making best use of natural resources and leisure time, keeping democracy working, and cooperating for human betterment (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980, p. 40).

Choosing from among these goals has resulted in an ongoing ideological conflict which is epitomized by the effective school movement. The original criterion for identifying an effective school was the standardized test score in reading and mathematics (Coleman, 1983). Goodlad (1983) has suggested that this measure is contrary to society's "deep and long-standing commitment to schools that foster the whole of intellectual, social and personal development " (p. 553). The goal of high test scores and the goal of personal development could be seen as contradictory expectations. If the two were ever in in conflict, which of them would be paramount?

Glickman (1987) pointed out that effective schools are not necessarily good schools. Effectiveness means only that the organization is efficiently doing what it set out to do. Who is to decide what that should be? Glickman suggested that effective schools were sometimes "too mechanical, too uniform, and too teacher directed" to be good places to learn (p. 623). In his words, "effective schools can be good schools, and good schools must be effective schools - but the two are not necessarily the same" (p. 624).

Humanists have argued that test scores do not reflect the "real" work of the school - the socialization process, the building of values, the relationships with students and the school's student retention rate. The goals of "betterment of individuals" and "maximization of human potential" are abstract and very difficult to assess. When administrators are making decisions on direction for a reform process, this difficulty in assessment may affect the choice of goals. Although both ideals are important, the fact that one is more measurable than the other may influence reform emphasis. Improved test scores may become the goal simply because it is a measurable outcome.

Alternative, less empirical, forms of research would be more likely to provide a means by which to assess "individual development." *Action Research,* for example, would provide those within the school with an ongoing assessment process by which to evaluate the reform process in terms of "individual development".

Action Research

The *action research* process, in the school setting, is very closely related to *teacher participation.* It is a participatory form which aims "to improve and to involve" through a process of "self-reflective enquiry". It is "a cycle of planning, executing, reconnaissance and modification" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986, p. 163).

Action research is based on a belief that outside agencies cannot identify the problems nor can they effectively recommend solutions. Problems within an organization can only be recognized and addresses by the practitioners themselves. In the educational context, teachers at the school site would be the ones in a position to identify the needs of

the students, to plan reform processes suited to the situation, and to formulate the expectations and measures to be used to assess the innovations.

In an *action research* oriented school, the goals of the reform would be dependent upon the collective philosophy of the teachers themselves. Measurement of the success of the reform would be done by the teachers as a participatory group. The assessment would be ongoing and would be the basis of continuing adaptation of the reform. Such an orientation would require changes in the second area of debate, governance structures.

Governance Structures

School management structures and practices have traditionally evolved from military and business models of organization. Although educators go to great pains to point out the differences which set schools apart from businesses (Griffiths, 1959; Watkins, 1986) there are continued exhortations, at various levels of administration, for schools to use business practices to improve efficiency (Tucker & Mandel, 1986).

The "reemergence of the social efficiency movement" (Watkins, 1986, p. 1) has been precipitated by several societal factors: (a) inflation which has decreased profit margins and reduced job opportunities; (b) government cutbacks which have caused educators to examine their "efficiency and productivity" in terms of test results; and (c) the "tax payer's revolt" which has caused a public demand for "efficiency" (Watkins, 1986, p.93; Beare, 1983, p.148).

Reactions to the renewed call for efficiency comes in two forms. One of these is "Neo-Taylorism" (Gronn 1982). A Neo-Tayloristic approach would apply efficient business practices to the schools in order to improve them. However, the promotion of "schools as knowledge work organizations" (Whitford & Hovda, 1986) has another side. There is a counter call for the implementation of innovative work processes rather than a return to traditional bureaucratic work environments. Schools have also been encouraged to emulate "Peters and Waterman" techniques (Rogers et al. 1984; Caldwell & Spinks,

1986, p. 45) and to use the "new management literature, such as shared decision-making, collegiality, innovation, and experimentation for school improvement efforts" (Whitford & Hovda, 1986, p. 66; Brodinsky, 1984, p. 38). Schools have also been encouraged to use Japanese management techniques, in particular, Quality Circles (Phillips & McCooly, 1982; Dunne & Maurer, 1982; Aquila, 1982). American Task Force reports, especially the Carnegie Commission's Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (Geisert, 1988, p. 56; Tucker & Mandel, 1986, pp. 26-27) recommend that teachers be given "a real voice in decision-making and developing 'school-site management' using 'cooperative models'" (Conley et al., 1988, p. 259). Thus, participation itself has become part of the efficiency solution.

The conflict between these extremes in implementing "good management techniques" is reminiscent of the ongoing lack of synchronization between professionals and bureaucrats as identified by Corwin (1965) several decades ago. Bureaucratic expectations are for uniformity in response to problems, with stress on procedure and standardized recording. Professionals expect diversity, unique reactions to problems, and constant research and change. The conflicting bureaucratic and professional management models in relation to reform, were identified by Bacharach and Conley (1986):

> Invariably, debates over the reform of school systems have focused on the balance between coordination and discretion. Thus administrators, (who feel most keenly the need for coordination) and teachers (who feel most keenly the need for discretion) are led to perceive each other as natural adversaries. (p. 642)

In many situations principals are teachers who by role redefinition are required to emphasize bureaucracy over professionalism. Teachers' autonomy is sometimes restricted to the point where teachers perceive themselves to be little more than technicians dependant upon the bureaucracy for direction and assessment. *Teacher participation* in administrative functions would be one way in which teachers could be encouraged to resume the

"reflective practitioner" aspect of teaching which would be necessary in order to professionalize it. Glickman (1989c) describes such a process as "shared governance".

Shared Governance.

Shared governance is a participative management format associated with the debate over the professional status of teachers. Glickman (1989c) described "shared governance" as process in which the purpose was "to provide for shared decision making between faculty and administration relating to school-wide improvements" and "to increase the level of harmony between individual and staff goals". (p. 32-33)

Shared governance can be recognized as both a participatory process and as a relative to action research. Glickman referred to "the concerns of shared governance for school-wide *action research* (p. 10; italics added) and the need for "true forums for intellectual discourse" (p. 11). Shared governance and action research are similar processes, both of which would require a teacher oriented locus of control.

The Locus of Control

As with the other two debates, the public's demand for improved schools has led to two extremes of reformation thought. One reaction to the "mediocrity" of our school systems, has been a governmental move to take away the schools' limited autonomy and impose strict standards of achievement. This "legislated learning approach" (Glickman 1989b) assumed that schools were simply not doing their best and that they required stricter government control to ensure performance.

The "legislated learning approach" was aimed at "academic excellence" (Glickman, 1989a) and has been implemented in several states by means of standardization in curriculum content, teaching procedures, testing processes, teacher evaluation, and methods of school assessment. This "top-down" style of reform was based on research that implied that schools which were effective had more direct teacher-centered instruction, more homework, more testing, more lesson plans and more explicit teaching objectives

(Glickman, 1989a, p. 7). However, legislated learning had a limited improvement record. Drop out rates and standardized test scores did not improve while teacher morale dwindled (Glickman, 1989b). The other extreme was "teacher empowerment" which allowed teachers a professional mandate in which they did what they felt was best for students.

Teacher Empowerment.

Glickman (1989a) described teacher empowerment as a process in which participants were encouraged to examine the school's present situation problematically with the intent of school reform. In his discussion, the term "action research" appears once more:

> Teachers are jointly responsible for the supervision of instructional tasks in a school, direct assistance, staff development, curriculum development, group development, and *action research* (Glickman, 1989a, p. 6; italics added).

The term "teacher empowerment" was also used by Maeroff (1989) who connected teacher empowerment with professionalism:

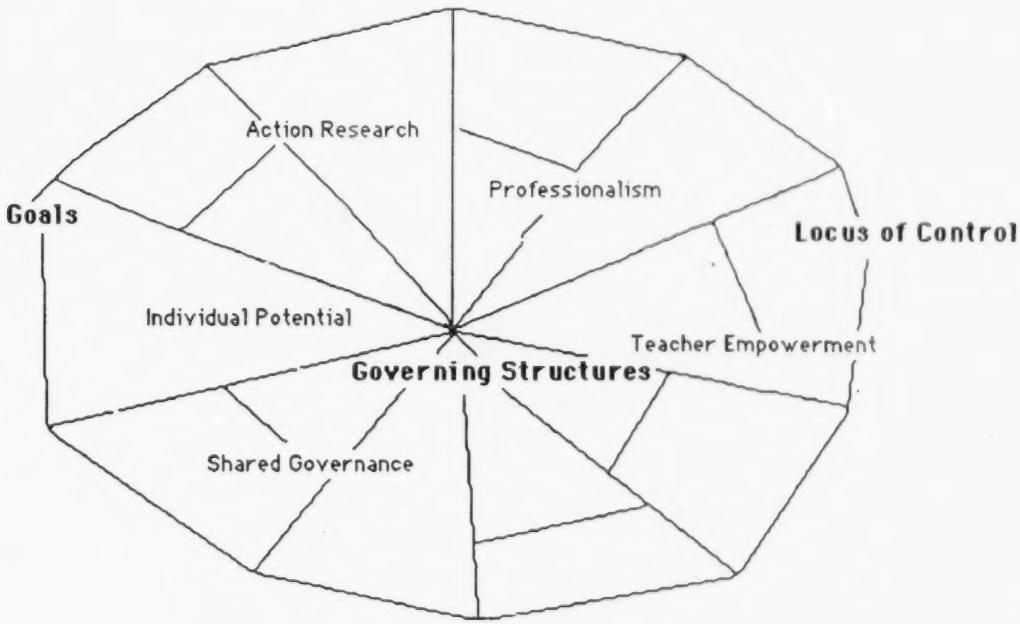
> For a teacher empowerment means - more than anything else - working in an environment in which the teacher acts and is treated as a professional. There are three guiding principles in this approach to empowerment, having to do with status, knowledge, and access to decision making. (Maeroff, 1989, p. 6)

In teacher empowerment processes, schools used a problem solving approach to improvement (Maeroff, 1989). Decisions were decentralized in order to give more power to those most affected, in a process leading to "restructured schools" (Glickman, 1989a, p. 6).

The Web Approach to Reform

The web approach to reform (Figure 2) is based on the assumption that *teachers can be empowered through shared governance to use action research* as a method of reform. The change in governance structures would place the emphasis on personal development for both teachers and students through the professionalization of teaching. The locus of control and responsibility for the reform would be shifted to educators by using participative processes for teacher empowerment. The application and the result would be an interactive combination of action research, teacher empowerment and shared governance.

Figure 2 A web approach to reform



The working definition for *teacher participation*, as set out at the beginning of this article, included some level of transference of responsibility from one or several administrators to a group of teachers. It was suggested that, in extreme cases, total responsibility would be deferred from a single individual to include all members of the group. This would not be possible within existing administrative structures and would require a departure from traditional methods for enacting reform.

From Pyramid to Web

A new generation of well-educated teachers is demanding some form of participation in the administrative functions governing schools. Although the debate at the academic level shows little sign of waning and traditional structures for many teachers are not relaxing, there are signs of change. Some schools are presently operating using teacher participation in governing structures as the locus for reform. Some of these operations have been documented (Glickman, 1989c; Crockenberg & Clark, 1979; Epp, 1990). In these situations administrators have taken the initiative. They have made teacher participation the norm and empowered teachers to share governance and use action research.

Many processes have been used by administrators who wish to shift the emphasis in the school in order to include teachers in administrative processes. The process described here is specifically geared to school improvement. For want of an established label for an existing practice, I have borrowed from Glickman's terminology and called it *Teacher Restructuring of Schools*.

Teacher Restructuring of Schools

The process to be described here is a combination of practices observed in "participatory schools" and processes used with groups wishing to implement a participatory approach to reform. It is based on two familiar "social technologies" - the

Nominal Group Technique and Force Field Analysis. These interrelated techniques are used to introduce action research, shared governance and teacher empowerment in individual schools as a basis for school improvement.

Preparing the Group

Administrators hoping to adopt a "web" approach to change cannot expect teachers to suddenly embrace a change in administrative processes without being exposed to the antecedent philosophy. The first step, before entering the Force Field Analysis process, should be a series of informational meetings. Teachers should be introduced to participative processes and the group should be involved in making the decision as to whether or not to initiate a changed administrative style. Some pivotal definitions and basic processes associated with participation are included in Appendix 1.

Force Field Analysis

Force field analysis is based on Lewin's Field theory (1952, cited in Anderson & Jones, 1986). A force field includes all forces, positive and negative, which affect a particular situation. The original force field analysis is said to have been done during World War I by strategic experts hoping to find out why some pilots flying bombing raids came back and others did not. The obvious reasons aside, the tacticians questioned pilots to find out what was working for and against them in their goal which was to drop their bombs and stay alive.

Although life in the school system may not be that dramatic, the analogy is fitting for the school improvement context for two reasons: it alludes to the importance of having an articulated goal and it recognizes the many positive forces already in place before looking at negative practices. Figure 3 is a diagram of the process.

Figure 3. Force Field Analysis. Source: Hansen & Braglio-Luther (1980) p. 22.

Supporting Forces	Existing Situation	Blocking Forces	Ideal Situation or Goal
-------->		<--------	
-------->		<--------	
-------->		<--------	
		Gap or Problem	

Force Field Analysis, when used at the school site for school improvement, has several steps, most of which involve the use of Nominal Group Technique. This process is used both to assess the school's needs and to search for ways to move toward identified goals.

Nominal Group Technique

The Nominal Group Technique is a simple process which can provide the involvement necessary for teacher participation. It can be used at several stages in the process and will result in action plans uniquely applicable to the individual school because of the specificity of the process.

It is important that everyone understand the changed role of the principal in this process. It is the administrator's job to help pose the questions to be considered and to guide the procedure, but ultimately the administrator's role becomes that of participant and group member. To use Sheive's (1988) terms, the principal becomes a facilitator - a person who persuades, explains, assists, convinces, monitors, models, develops, redefines, and encourages (p. 55). This does not mean the abdication of leadership but a modification of the leadership role.

The Nominal Group Technique is based on these steps:

(1) Setting the Question: The group must understand and agree to the phrasing of the question being discussed. It should be written out, and if possible, given to individual group members to consider before coming to the meeting.

(2) Idea Generation: Individuals write down ideas pertaining to the question. If group members have not already seen the question, each should have five or ten minutes at the beginning of the session to brainstorm alone.

(3) Round-robin collection of ideas: Each person gives one of his or her ideas in turn until all have been collected on a chalkboard, flip chart, or computer hooked to an overhead projector. Individuals may "pass" if they have no ideas to contribute in any given round but they will continue to be invited to contribute in subsequent rounds until everyone has passed. "Piggybacking" of ideas is encouraged; that is, individuals can add to or adapt ideas presented by others. No idea is too wild and no-one is allowed to ridicule another's idea.

(4) Clarification: After all ideas have been collected the group should go through the list to make sure that everyone understands the statements. Similar ideas should be combined into a single statement.

(5) Individual "Reverse Order" Ranking: Individuals must then chose a specific number of statements as the "best" or most important. It is suggested that participants be asked to chose one idea for every four that were generated. That is, if the process generated 20 statements, individuals could be asked to identify and rank the top five. Individuals are then asked to assign 5 points to the one they feel to be the most important, 4 to the next most important and so on. This reverse order ranking allows the most important ideas to be assigned the most points so that they can be combined in a group total.

(6) Group Ranking: The facilitator collects the individual rankings to form a composite group score for each idea or statement. Members may write their ranking

numbers on the chart or hand in their rankings to be counted after the meeting. This is time consuming and delays the process.

Most groups prefer to collect the group ranking in a group process. This allows for "instant feedback" and also provides opportunity for group members to interact in a group process and to understand where the resulting ranking came from. In this process, the facilitator starts with the first statement and asks the first person how much he or she assigned to that statement. Each of the other group members adds his or her points assigned, person by person, around the room. That is, the first person to have chosen a statement gives the ranking he or she assigned it and subsequent members add their rankings to the previously given number. The total is noted on the board or flipchart and the next item is ranked in the some manner. In this way the statements most important to the group can be identified.

(7) Idea limitation: The group may then decide to use or act on the "best" (or most important) ideas or they may call for a re-ranking of ideas. If this happens individuals can be invited to speak for the ideas they favour and attempt to persuade other members of the group to chose that idea in the next round. The ranking is then redone using only ideas which got some votes in the first round.

Decisions concerning re-ranking and acceptance of the group's top ideas are up to the group. For example, the group may feel that the "best" idea is impossible to act upon and may chose to focus on the idea ranked as second best. Action relating to any of the ideas can (a) be the topic for further group discussion, (b) become the question for another round of Nominal Group Technique, or (c) be referred to a committee for further action.

This process can be repeated several times in a Force Field Analysis format to ensure ongoing interaction and direction for the school improvement process. The process can be augmented by other group problem-solving techniques.

Force Field Analysis using Nominal Group Technique

Force Field Analysis can be done using a series of Nominal Group Technique Sessions. The group would make a decision on whether or not to embark on the program, set goals, recognize existing strengths and weaknesses and formulate plans for action within the Force Field Analysis framework using Nominal Group Techniques at each stage.

Step One: Prerequisite Assessment

As mentioned earlier, you cannot assume that your group is interested in participation or ready to accept a change in the roles within the organization. The first step is to talk to people, assess the situation, and become aware of the group's feelings. Make the group aware of the meaning of terms such as *consensus* and *synergy* (as given in Appendix 1).

The Nominal Group Technique can then be used to help the group decide whether to launch the process or not. The question for this session could be *Present arguments to help us decide whether we are ready for teacher participation in administrative processes.* If, on the basis of this process, it is decided to try participation, then the group can go on to step two.

Step Two: Establishing School Goals

The question for this session should be decided upon by group members but it would probably read something like this: *What do we want to emphasize in our school?* or *What should the goals of our school include?*

Step Three: Assessing the Situation

The Nominal Group Technique can then be used to focus on activities already being done in the schools which contribute to meeting these goals. The question for this round could be *What are we doing now to help us meet these goals?* This session sets a positive tone focusing on the good things already taking place in the school so that the group can

build on them. This will also make individuals aware of what others are doing and help to improve communication.

The same technique could then be employed to identify weaknesses. This is an important opportunity for honesty and renewed commitment. However, if the administrator thinks that the situation does not call for this part of the process, it can be left out.

Step Four: Choosing Areas for Improvement

Once the group has agreed on the goals for the school, the Nominal Group Technique can be applied to each of the goals valued by the group in turn. For example, if the goal which ranked highest was, (as it often is), *promoting feelings of self worth in every student,* the question for the subsequent session could be *How can we promote feelings of self worth in our students?*

A similar process could then be used for each of the goals established in step two or the group may decide to work on an action plan to work toward one goal before starting work on others.

Step Five: Setting the Action Plan

Ideas for meeting goals should be collected as soon as possible into an action plan. Some groups like to do this as a group, accepting volunteers, assigning committees and setting deadlines in a group setting. Others prefer to assign "goals" to smaller committees who then return with a proposal for an action plan which can then be adopted or adapted by the larger group. Some administrators take the information provided by the group and write an overall action plan themselves which is then presented to the group. This option should be considered carefully in the light of the importance of group processes. It may be perceived by teachers as an attempt at reasserting autocracy, but in other circumstances teachers might simply consider it the administrator's job. Whatever the case, the eventual action plan must be made clear to all and deadlines and duties must be clear and specific.

Step 6: Monitoring the Process

Methods of monitoring the process should be built into the action plan and dates for reassessment of the activities should be stipulated in the action plan itself. The assessment of school programs falls naturally into a yearly pattern. The group will probably want to reassess group goals at the beginning of the year and evaluate past programs at the end of the year. However, the group may decide on any other form of evaluation. Experience warns that any initiative in school improvement must be reevaluated in some structured ongoing fashion or it will not experience continued success. The Force Field Analysis should be repeated at intervals and the Nominal Group Technique can be used at any time to address the problems encountered in continuing attempts at change.

Summary

In this paper three areas subject to debate were used as a backdrop to propose an alternative "web" approach to school reform to take the place of a pyramidic model. These three areas were *goals of education, governance structures and locus of control.* It was argued that *action research, shared governance and teacher empowerment* are related concepts which, when combined in a participative process, could form an alternative model of reform. The locus of control would revert to teachers and administrators at the school site level. The group would use action research, increased professionalism and teacher empowerment to implement the processes necessary for the school to reach mutually acceptable goals.

This approach would lead to many diverse processes, depending on the perceived needs of the individuals closest to the reform "action". There are many instances of teacher *restructuring of schools* already in use by staffs. The process described here combines Nominal Group Techniques with Force Field Analysis to allow school staffs to plan, implement and evaluate school improvement initiatives. It is just one possible method for putting participative theory into practice.

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Teacher Participation in School Governance: A Central Element in Educational Reform

Appendix 1
Teacher Restructuring of Schools*
Background Information for Teacher Groups
(Overheads)

McGregor (1960)
"Theory X"

Theory X assumptions:

(a) People dislike work and responsibility, and prefer to be given direction.

(b) People work for financial reward; they are not interested in doing a good job for other reasons.

(c) People need to be supervised, controlled and coerced into achieving company objectives.

(d) Workers' goals are not the same as the organization's goals.
The worker's goal: financial gain with minimum effort
The organization's goal: maximum production for minimum wages.

"Theory Y"

Theory Y assumptions:

(a) People would prefer to work at interesting, challenging jobs which provide personal satisfaction, in which case they can be self-directed.

(b) Psychological fulfillment is as important as monetary rewards.

(c) If management provides incentives for cooperation trust can be developed between workers and managers to make supervision unnecessary.

(d) Workers allowed to be involved in setting organizational goals will be more likely to personalize those goals and adopt and implement them.

"The ultimate goal sought in both the traditional and the human relations model is compliance with managerial authority a placebo rather than a panacea.

Participation:

1. employees may participate in setting goals.

2. they may participate in making decisions, choosing from among alternative courses of action.

3. employees may participate in solving problems - a process that includes the definition of issues and the generation of alternative courses of action as well as choice among the alternatives.

4. Participation may involve making changes in the organization, that is, organizational development activities.

(Sashkin, 1984, p. 5)

Leadership Styles

Differing Levels of Participation

1. Autocratic styles. the administrator makes the decision alone without consulting workers.

2. Democratic-centralist styles. the administrator consults the group but reserves the authority to make the final decision.

3. Group determining styles. the group has the authority to make the decision, whether the administrator is in agreement or not. The group may use either consensus or majority rule to reach a decision.

(Epp, 1990)

"Theory Z" (Ouchi, 1982).

Individuals take collective responsibility in an atmosphere of trust and mutual support.

A community of equals working together on common goals in a spirit of intimacy, trust, cooperation and egalitarianism.

.....

Leadership roles:

initiator

orchestrator

analyst

researcher

implementer

and evaluator
(Caldwell and Spinks, 1986,p. 35).

The Principal is a **"facilitator"**

- a person who

persuades,

explains,

assists,

convinces,

monitors,

models,

develops,

redefines,

and encourages.

(Sheive, 1988, p. 55).

The principal will be a facilitator and a mediator,

expert in examining and clarifying issues,

resolving problems through frank discussion with opposing parties,

leading to negotiated decision-making on matters affecting the work of students, teachers, parents and members of council.

(Watkins, 1986, p. 103)

A Comparison of Leadership and Facilitator Functions

LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) (p. 279)	FACILITATOR FUNCTIONS As Found in Teacher Restructured Schools (Epp, 1990)
1.Making the group aware of the need for new or different action - awareness	The need for new actions is based on the group's perceptions of their school's needs.
2. Clarifying alternative ends and strategies - settling on action.	The alternative strategies and ultimate actions are suggested and determined by the group.
3. Accepting and initiating a preferred end or approach - implementing.	Implementation is carried out by the group based on their plan.
4. Monitoring the progress toward the preferred end or approach - procession.	The progress of the plan is monitored by the group usually according to a group developed plan.
5. Introducing evaluative data - evaluating.	Evaluation is conducted by group processes or by a committee appointed by the group.
6. Concluding group activity regarding the particular end or approach - concluding.	The evaluation done by the group determines the end or continuation of the activity.
7.Making the group aware of its results - feedback.	The group initiates its own sources of evaluation and feedback.

Critical Theory: Action Research Process

- assess the situation "problematically".
- recognize and identify barriers.
- determine possible solutions.
- assign specifics: who, what, when, how.

Habermas's ideal speech situation

- that the utterance is understandable
- that it is true
- that the speaker is sincere
- that it is right for the speaker to speak.

Synergy

- The combined energies of a group of people working collaboratively are greater than the sum of the energies of each working independently.

- The whole equals more than the sum of the parts.

- If you have a horse and a wagon you have three things.

- Group decisions are usually better than individual decisions.

- Group decisions are more likely to be implemented.

Consensus

- Everyone understands the issue.
- Everyone has a chance to express opinions.
- Discussion is non confrontational.
- Everyone agrees to publicly support the decision.

Issues associated with Consensus

- No decision is ever final.
- Voting causes dissention.
- Compromise is essential.
- Common good must be understood.

Consensus.

Consensus is a group decision-making process which serves as an alternative to the lobbying and vote taking of democratic procedures.

"Consensus is the most effective decision-making technique in that it makes best use of the group members' resources"

(Bartunek and Keys, 1973, p. 56).

Group consensus is a decision-making method in which all participants contribute their thoughts and feelings and all share in the final decision.
No decision becomes final which is not understood by nearly all members. But consensus does not mean that everyone agrees. Consensus means that

(1) everyone can paraphrase the issue to show that he understands it;

(2) everyone has a chance to describe his or her feelings about the issue; and

(3) those who continue to disagree will nevertheless say publicly that they are willing to give the decision an experimental try for a prescribed period of time.

In other words, consensus means that a sufficient number of participants are in favor of a decision to carry it out, while others understand the decision and will not obstruct its occurrence.

(Schmuck 1972, p. 43)

Guidelines for implementing consensus

1. Avoid arguing for your own individual judgments.

2. Do not assume that someone must win and someone must lose. ... Keep the discussion focused on what you can agree on.

3. Do not change your mind simply to avoid conflict.

4. Avoid conflict-reducing techniques such as majority vote, averaging coin flips, and bargaining. When a dissenting member finally agrees, don't feel that he or she must be rewarded later.

5. Differences of opinion are natural and expected.

6. When you can't seem to get anywhere in a large group, break into smaller groups and try to reach consensus. Then return to the larger group and try again.

7. When one or two members simply can't agree with the group after a reasonable period of time, ask them to deliver a minority report based on their logic.

(Garcia, 1986, pp. 50-51)

Force Field Analysis

Supporting Forces	Existing Situation	Blocking Forces	Ideal Situation
------>		<------	
------>		<------	
------>		<------	
		Gap or problem	

1. Clearly state the goal or desired situation.
2. Identify the situation "as it is."
3. Brainstorm the forces which will help you reach your goal.
4. Brainstorm the forces which prevent you from changing the present situation.
5. Prioritize the negative forces in order of the most significant obstacles which can be dealt with.
6. Brainstorm possible solutions to the prioritized list of obstacles.
7. Create an action plan based on these solutions.

(Hansen & Braglio-Luther, 1980,p. 28)

Brainstorming- Ground Rules

- Present the topic clearly.
- Write down all suggestions. One idea promotes others. Do not screen or sort suggestions.
- Move rapidly from one item to the next. Discussion must be for the purpose of clarifying the meaning rather than the worth of an idea.
- Encourage spontaneous ideas as well as carefully considered ones.
- Seek ideas from the whole group rather than from a few vocal individuals.
- Set a time limit or a maximum number of items before you begin. Five or ten minutes is usually enough time.
- Make sure group members understand that they will sort and evaluate the ideas after the brainstorming is complete.

(Hansen and Braglio-Luther, 1980, p. 26)

The Tasks of the Group Process

1. translating general policies into group and individual assignments
2. coordinating different activities
3. setting and adjusting time schedules
4. reconciling conflicting priorities
5. developing human resources
6. securing material and other resources
7. monitoring the progress of programs, staff members and students

(Conley, 1988, p. 267)

What you can expect from participation:

Positive Outcomes

1. Teachers accept collective responsibility for school program.

2. New programs are developed to meet school goals.

3. More emphasis is placed on growth of individual children.

4. Goals are viewed as evolving rather than static.

5. Self supervision becomes a teacher responsibility.

6. There is increased quality of decision-making.

7. Administrators and teachers exhibit improved mutual trust.

8. Professional skills of teachers improve.

9. Desirable changes are made in the curriculum

(Moeller and Mahan , 1971, pp. 52-53).

What you can expect from participation:

Negative Outcomes

1. Psychological conflicts. from those who are
   (a) childlike and need "nurturing",
   (b) dependent on enticement and force for motivation,
   (c) strongly ordered and accustomed to moralistic management, and
   (d) materialistic, wanting "something" for every achievement.

2. Organizational conflicts.
   (a) Principal reluctance to give up power.
   (b) Teacher expectations of authoritarian leadership.
   (c) Teacher suspicions that shared decision making is not "real."
   (d) Teacher inexperience in collaboration as a result of traditional teacher autonomy.
   (e) Lack of time.
   (f) Lack of decision
   (g) 'Groupthink.'

Changing the world

Empowerment reform asks questions that defy the conventional norms, structures, and pat answers of schools: Why have grade levels? Why have grades? ... Why teach in 50-minute time periods, 6 hours a day, 5 days a week? Why have subjects - why not integrated projects? ... Why have one teacher, one classroom?

(Glickman, 1989, p. 7).

Carnegie report.

This can only happen when teachers have the freedom to organize the school day and the school's resources in ways that best suit the immediate educational needs of their students. ...Class times and sizes might be varied across the school day, and teachers might not be confined to a single classroom. ...teachers are fully involved in decision making, ... in which the entire staff works toward a common goal

(Tucker and Mandel, 1986, p. 26).

Dealing with teacher reactions to Participation

Common teacher reactions:

"Just tell me what to do, decision-making is your job."

"I will contribute, but only if I think that's what you want."

"We tried that already and it didn't work."

"I'd rather just complain."

"That sounds like too much work."

"I'm too old to change."

Most staffs will exhibit unwillingness at first.
EVERY SITUATION IS DIFFERENT.
It is up to you to assess your own situation but these are some ideas that might help.

1. Make sure teachers understand the process, the terminology and the expectations before you ask them to decide whether or not to participate. This will allow you to gauge the extent to which this will work with this group. The long silences and lack of imagination may indicate a surliness. Patience.
2. Do not voice your own opinion on issues until everyone has had a chance to speak. Group members will have to give their own opinions because they don't know yours. When you do speak, make it clear that your ideas are only suggestions, just like everyone else's.
3. Get suggestions from everyone, especially the complainers. A round robin method of collecting ideas gives everyone an opportunity and encourages the less vocal. It also makes everyone pay attention and allows for "piggy-backing" of ideas.
4. Emphasize the themes of "no idea is too crazy" and "no decision is ever final". Try the crazy ideas and set time limits by which you expect to reassess them.
5. People who think that they have already tried participation have probably been subjected to "pseudo-participation" at some time in the past. Point out the differences - in outcomes and in expectations.
6. Allow the group pressure to work for you. The ones not pulling their weight will be made aware of it.
7. If people are too old to change they may be too old to teach. The participative process may be your chance to get rid of deadwood.
8. Be patient. Change will not happen over night. These people have been trained over their careers to be subservient. You can't expect them to change too quickly.
9. Don't try to do too much too soon. Allow it to evolve. Arrange for staff input into the development of goals and then chose a few of those goals for the first year, making it clear that the process will continue and that goals postponed will be addressed in the future.
10. Have fun. Use the time with your staff to get to know them and to have positive social interaction.

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